

Neighborhood's locality, walkability, and residents' multimorbidity: Evidence from the China's middle-aged and older population

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Abstract

Background Neighborhood factors have gained increasing attention, while the role of neighborhood's walkability and location have not been clarified in multimorbidity. In this study, we estimated the prevalence of 14 non-communicable chronic disease (NCDs) and depicted variations in the number of NCDs as a function of road type, urban-rural settings, neighborhood characteristics, and individual confounders.

Methods Data came from China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study 2011 National Baseline Survey. Negative binomial regression with clustered robust standard errors was employed to analyze variations in the number of NCDs among 13,414 Chinese middle-aged and older population.

Results First, over 65% subjects had at least one NCDs, and over 35% had multiple NCDs. Arthritis (33.08%), hypertension (24.54%), and digestive disease (21.98%) were the most prevalent NCDs. There existed no urban-rural differences in multimorbidity after adjusted for neighborhood clustering variations. Lastly, living with paved road was associated with fewer NCDs relative to living with unpaved road.

Conclusion Findings suggest that urban-rural disparities in the number of NCDs appeared to result from within-neighborhoods characteristics. Living with walkable road is important for middle-aged and older population.

Background

Multimorbidity is the coexistence of two or more chronic diseases, which has gained increasing attention especially in the context of population aging (Banister 2012). Relative to younger generation, population aged over 60 has a higher proportion with chronic kidney disease (Zhang 2012), stroke (Teh et al. 2018), and heart disease (Moran et al. 2008), which are all major causes of deaths of the elderly (Couser et al. 2011). In particular, patients with multimorbidity have a higher probability of premature death (Menotti et al. 2001), longer hospital length of stay (Vogeli et al. 2007), functional disability (Fortin et al. 2004), and mental problems (McLean et al. 2014). Care for patients with multimorbidity is challenging, since most of current clinical guidelines are specific for single chronic diseases (Boyd et al. 2005; WHO 2016). In addition, multimorbidity requires patients to take multiple medications and have higher medication adherence, which is more difficult for older patients.

Prior observations have explored several individual-level attributes associated with multimorbidity. First, prior investigators note that multimorbidity is increasing with age (McLean et al. 2014; Violan et al. 2014). Women appear to have higher odds for multimorbidity relative to men (Violan et al. 2014). Lifestyle behaviors including smoke history (Menotti et al. 2001) and physical exercise (McLean et al. 2014), physiological attributes such as mental distress (McLean et al. 2014) and body mass index (Menotti et al. 2001), socioeconomic status like income and education status (Violan et al. 2014) are considered to be potential indicators of multimorbidity.

A fair number of observations suggest that urban residents have higher odds for being multimorbidity such as studies from Spain (Foguet-Boreu et al. 2014), Myanmar (Aye et al. 2019), and Korea (Yi et al. 2019). In contrast, a number of observations did not find the association between urban-rural disparities and multimorbidity such as a previous study from Portugal (Prazeres and Santiago 2015), and some studies even indicate that rural residents have higher probability of multimorbidity such as the one from Canada (Roberts et al. 2015). There are two relevant studies based on Chinese. One study did not directly introduce urban vs. rural settings in the model, thereby being unable to investigate urban-rural disparities after adjusting for variations in environment and socioeconomic inequality (Yi et al. 2019). In the other study, results suggest that urban residents have higher odds for multimorbidity, while investigators failed to include several important individuals' characteristics such as physical activity and BMI as well as environment variations in the study (Garin et al. 2015). Whether the urban-rural disparities indeed exist in China after controlling for neighborhood disparities and individuals' attributes is unclear.

Neighborhood factors that may affect health status have gained increasing attention. Hale et al. (2013) suggest that individual's perceived neighborhood quality such as perceptions of crime, litter, and pleasantness in the neighborhood may be associated with health status, and the link could be partially mediated by sleep quality. Steptoe and Feldman (2001) have demonstrated that lower neighborhood scores may be associated with psychological distress. Neighborhood's environmental attributes such as greenness and open space are recognized as space for walking for recreation and social coherence, which may lead to better mental and physical health (Sugiyama et al. 2008; Sugiyama et al. 2009). Other neighborhood attributes including socioeconomic status (Bethea et al. 2016; Bosma et al. 2001; Steptoe and Feldman 2004), access to public transport (Cummins et al. 2005), political climate (Cummins et al. 2005), street noise (Parra et al. 2010), and safety (Johnson et al. 2009; Ou et al. 2018) have been considered to be associated with residents' health status. Despite a significant number of studies focusing on the impact from neighborhood's environment and security on individuals' health (Cummins et al. 2005; Sugiyama et al. 2008; Sugiyama et al. 2009), a limited number of studies have investigated the association between walkability and older population's health status as a reflection of non-communicable chronic disease, care of which may be tremendously affected by neighborhood's walkability and access to health care.

To bridge the gaps, this study analyzed variations in health status for Chinese middle-aged and older population. Here, we offered two hypotheses for discussion. First, urban subjects may have more NCDs relative to rural subjects since they may live unhealthy life style and have a higher probability of exposure to air pollution (Steyn et al. 1997). Second, living with walkable road type, such as paved road, may be significantly associated with fewer NCDs since walkability may affect residents' access to health care particularly for population with limited mobility such as the elderly (Satariano et al. 2012).

Methods

Data source

We derived data from China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study (CHARLS) 2011 National Baseline Survey, which recorded data on 17,708 Chinese aged over 45 from 28 provinces in mainland China (Yang et al. 2012). Information regarding sampling, recruitment, response rate, and procedures for data collection could be retrieved from prior study (Yang et al. 2012). Excluding 4295 observations with missing data, we derived data on 13,413 subjects from 432 neighborhoods. In our definition, neighborhoods refer to villages in rural areas and communities in urban areas.

Measures

To measure health status, the overall number of non-communicable chronic diseases was calculated as the dependent variable. Whether a subject had ever been diagnosed with the fourteen non-communicable chronic diseases was recorded in the survey, the 14 non-communicable chronic diseases including hypertension, dyslipidemia, diabetes, cancer or malignant tumor, chronic lung diseases, chronic liver disease, heart problems, stroke, chronic kidney disease, stomach or other digestive disease, mental problems, memory-related disease, arthritis or rheumatism, and asthma. Data were derived from answers to the question "*Have you been diagnosed with the following 14 NCDs?*". In addition, the data on hypertension, chronic lung disease, and mental problems also included answers to the question "*Do you know if you have hypertension, chronic lung disease, and mental problems, respectively?*".

Neighborhood's walkability was reflected by road type. In this study, there were four types of road including unpaved road, paved road, sand-stone road and others. Urban versus rural setting was introduced to measure neighborhoods' locality and urbanization.

The number of primary care institutions in the neighborhood (community health centers, community health care medical posts, township health clinics, and village medical posts) were obtained to measure residents' access to primary care since prior studies have documented that access to health care resources could be associated with population health (Autier et al. 2011; Chen et al. 2010; Cossman et al. 2017). Data were derived from the question "*How many community health centers, community health care medical posts, township health clinics or village medical posts in the village or community?*". Last, water sanitation (groundwater system) was introduced to reflect neighborhood' living conditions.

Individual-level confounders including age, sex, marital status, education status, household income, body mass index (BMI), exercise, and health care insurance were introduced as covariates (Haas et al. 2003; Kuh et al. 2005; Trani et al. 2011). Health care insurance was classified as uninsured, rural cooperative medical insurance (RCMI), and others including business medical insurance, Urban Residents Medical Insurance, and Urban Employees Medical Insurance due to a limited number of subjects with the last three types of medical insurance in CHARLS.

Statistical analysis

First, we stratified study subjects into urban and rural groups to exam the distribution of the baseline characteristics (independent variables). Statistic tests including t test, Mann–Whitney U test, and Chi-

squared test were employed according to data characteristics. The analysis was used for in-sample interpretations; thereby CHARLS survey weights were not used (table 1). For multimorbidity and prevalence of each NCD, CHARLS sampling weights were used for interpreting results as China's population representative parameters (table 2).

Next, negative binomial regression was employed instead of Poisson regression, since the dependent variable's variance was larger than its mean value. Univariate analysis was performed to examine disparities of NCDs as a function of each independent variable. Multivariate negative binomial regression analysis was employed with all covariates (Model1 in table 3). Clustered robust standard errors were generated in the model 2 to take individuals nested within neighborhoods into account. Variance inflation factors were calculated to exam collinearity among independent variables, which suggested slight collinearity. Models' significance was examined by Pearson chi-square.

In addition, we undertook sensitive analysis by performing a multinomial logistic regression with 5 responses ($Y = 0, 1, 2, 3$, and $>$ or $= 4$) with robust standard errors. Results were qualitatively similar with those from negative binomial regression.

Statistical analyses were performed with Stata/SE 15.0 (StataCrop, TX, USA). A two-tailed P-value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Table 1 presents the baseline descriptive characteristics for participants. We had 5639 urban subjects and 7774 rural subjects. Of the 13,413 participants, 3104 subjects (23.14%) lived with unpaved roads with 1001 subjects from urban areas (17.75%) and 2103 from rural areas (27.05%). There were 7.87% urban subjects and 13.07% rural subjects lived with sand-stone roads, and 74.00% urban subjects and 59.09% rural subjects relied on paved roads. Results from statistical test suggest that urban-rural disparities existed in road type (table 1). In addition, 24.05% subjects lived in neighborhoods without primary care institution, while 14.17% subjects lived with over three primary care institutions (table 1). Furthermore, 29.21% subjects lived with groundwater system, while over 70% subjects lived without groundwater system (table 1). A higher proportion of urban population (41.66%) lived with groundwater system relative to rural population (20.18%), which was statistically significant ($P < 0.001$). Last, individual-level attributes including household income, BMI, and exercise varied across urban and rural subjects (table 1).

<Table 1 about here>

According to weighted analysis in table 2, over 65% study subjects had at least one NCDs, followed by 19.11% with two NCDs, 9.81% with three NCDs, and around 10% with at least 4 NCDs. The top 3 NCDs were arthritis or rheumatism (33.08%), hypertension (24.54%), and digestive disease (21.98%). In contrast, cancer, memory-related disease, and mental problems were the least prevalent NCDs. There were 0.90%,

1.45%, and 1.78% subjects self-reporting to have cancer, memory-related disease, and mental problems, respectively. Furthermore, there existed urban-rural disparities in the prevalence of hypertension, heart problems, dyslipidemia, diabetes, and asthma in unweighted statistical tests. Urban subjects were more likely to have hypertension, heart problems, dyslipidemia, and diabetes, whereas rural subjects had a greater probability of asthma ($P < 0.05$). After controlling for CHARLS sampling weights, there existed no urban-rural disparities in the prevalence of each NCD since the 95% CI of the proportion in urban residents overlapped with that in rural residents across all NCDs.

<Table 2 about here>

Table 3 presents results from negative binomial. Results suggest that urban residents have a higher probability of more NCDs after controlling for all other covariates (Model 1 in Table 4, IRR = 1.05, 95% CI [1.01–1.09]). Results from model 2 that clustered individuals nested within neighborhoods, however, suggested that there existed no urban-rural disparities in the number of NCDs (IRR = 1.05, 95% CI [0.98–1.12]).

<Table 3 about here>

Living with better road type was associated with fewer NCDs (table 3). Specifically, subjects living with paved roads (IRR = 0.87, 95% CI [0.83–0.91]) had significantly lower incident rate for more NCDs than those relying on unpaved roads after controlling for all covariates in model 1. Results were consistent after controlling for confounding within neighborhoods. (model 2 in table 3). Living with sand-stone road and other types of road was not consistently associated with NCDs across model 1 and model 2.

Living with more primary care institutions nearby were negatively associated with more NCDs (Table 3). Compared with those without primary care institutions in the neighborhood, subjects living with three primary care institutions or more were significantly less likely to have more NCDs (IRR = 0.90, 95% CI [0.85–0.96]). The disparities, however, did not exist after controlling for within-neighborhood variations (Model 2 in Table 3).

Last, two individual-level attributes, household income and BMI, were associated with NCDs (table 3). Specifically, the richest appeared to be less likely to suffer from a larger number of NCDs than the poorest (IRR = 0.93, 95% CI [0.89–0.98]), even after controlling for other covariates. Overweight (IRR = 1.16, 95% CI [1.08–1.24]) and obese subjects (IRR = 1.36, 95% CI [1.24–1.50]) had greater incident rate for more NCDs compared with those with BMI less than 18.5, even when other covariates were introduced. Subjects with BMI from 18.5 to 25 had a lower probability of more NCDs relative to those BMI less than 18.5, even after controlling for all other covariates in model 1 (IRR = 0.91, 95%CI [0.85–0.97]).

Discussion

By employing a national cohort of China's middle-aged and elder population, this study depicts the prevalence of multimorbidity and 14 NCDs among Chinese middle-aged and older population. Although prior studies have focused on the association between residents' walkability and mental health as well as quality of life (Sugiyama et al. 2008; Sugiyama et al. 2009), this study contributes to literature around the association between walkability and the middle-aged and the elderly's health status reflected by the number of NCDs, care of which may require pedestrian-friendly road to reach health services as well as social coherence. In contrast, we found that there existed no urban-rural disparities in residents' multimorbidity after controlling for within neighborhoods' variations.

Our results call for attention directed on non-communicable diseases in China. Relative to other society, the situation of non-communicable diseases in China is more urgent for its demographic shift and large population. According to our analysis, over 65% middle-age and the elderly had at least one NCDs and about 35% subjects had comorbidity, whereas prior observation in Canada concluded that around only 20% aged from 45 to 64 had comorbidity (Pefoyo et al. 2015). Results show that arthritis or rheumatism was the most prevalent NCDs, followed by hypertension and digestive disease. However, our study only includes observed NCDs, while neglecting those unobserved. One prior study, which analyzed data from medical questionnaire in CHARLS and included unobserved hypertension, suggested that there were around 40.9% subjects with hypertension (Feng XL 2014). Therefore, it is unwarranted to compare the prevalence of the 14 NCDs due to the exclusion of unobserved NCDs. However, results that Chinese middle-aged and elder population have a significant proportion with arthritis or rheumatism are consistent with a prior study (Zhang et al. 2001). Even though arthritis may not contribute to disease burden as considerably as hypertension and diabetes do (Yang et al. 2008), suffering from arthritis significantly impact elderly's mobility and quality of life (Badley and Wang 1998; Husted et al. 2001).

Our results offer some clues for urban-rural disparities in multimorbidity. Although urban population have a greater probability of encountering more NCDs relative to rural population (univariate analysis and model 1 in table 3), the differences appeared to be fully explained by within-neighborhood confounding. One possibility is that those with higher risk of multimorbidity, such as white collars that undertake greater life pressure, tend to be nested in several neighborhoods in urban cities. They may prefer to live closely to offices in order to save time to work, thereby forsaking their living conditions. It's unwarranted to compare our results (model 2 in table 3) with prior studies since most of them did not consider within-neighborhood variations. While our between-person results (model 1 in table 3) are consistent with results from Korea (Yi et al. 2019) and Spain (Foguet-Boreu et al. 2014), but differ from those in prior research from Canada (Roberts et al. 2015). The difference may result from disparities in living environment, occupation, and life behavior between two nations. Given the consistency and heterogeneity, urban-rural disparities in NCDs appear to vary across nations. Therefore, one should be careful to generalize ideas across nations of different social context. In particular, future analysis that derives data from national survey such as CHARLS should take within-neighborhood characteristics into account.

With reference to the second hypothesis, results confirm that living with walkable road was positively associated with individual's health status (table 4). Results here support findings from prior studies that

living with pedestrian-friendly road type may be associated with the elderly's social coherence, mental health, and physical activity (Stafford et al. 2007; Sugiyama et al. 2008). While the other possibility is that walkability may link with access to primary care for the elderly. With a given number of primary care institutions in the neighborhood, population living with walkable road type had a lower probability of more NCDs (table 4), which is particularly important for patients with limited morbidity. For arthritis patients, the middle-aged, and the elderly, their morbidity may be limited and decrease over time (Satario et al. 2012). Therefore, neighborhoods' walkability may affect their access to primary care, which may indirectly affect their probability of multimorbidity.

Three implications for policy makers or future analysis could be drawn from this study. First, although the prevalence of NCDs among Chinese older population has been extensively discussed, most of these studies focused on hypertension and diabetes (Yang et al. 2008). Therefore, we suggest that local government should pay more attention to the distribution of arthritis or rheumatism-related health resources and health education program. In addition, results in terms of urban-rural disparities were not consistent across models, which suggest that urban-rural disparities may link with within-neighborhood characteristics. Future studies may consider to take within-neighborhood variations into account. Last, our study suggests that government should consider local population's demographic characteristics and health demand, for example, the proportion of the elderly and their mobility. For population in transportation-disadvantaged regions such as rural areas in China's Tibet, Xinjiang, and Sichuan province, the distribution of health care resources should consider not only population density but also geographic attributes including land area, road type, and access to public transportation.

This study employed a good representative sample of Chinese middle-aged and older population with a large sample size. We depicted the prevalence of the 14 NCDs among Chinese middle-aged and older population. We analyzed variations in NCDs as a function of neighborhood attributes as well individual characteristics. We generated robust standard errors in multivariate models to capture within-neighborhood variations.

Despite the strength, this study has several limitations. First, the cross-sectional study design limited the potential to offer strong evidence for causality. Second, this study employed self-reported disease status, which may yield reporting bias and recalling bias. Moreover, CHARLS only recorded information of the 14 chronic diseases; thereby this study may underestimate the prevalence of multimorbidity. In addition, due to unavailable data, this study did not control for other living environment attributes, such as safety and green space, which may affect dwellers' health as well (Johnson et al. 2009; Sugiyama et al. 2008). Last, even though multimorbidity has gained increasing attention, it may not be an ideal measure of health status since it may not capture health variations among patients with the same number of NCDs as well as differences within various combination of concurrent NCDs.

Abbreviations

NCDs, non-communicable chronic diseases.

CHARLS, China Health and Retirement Longitudinal Study.

BMI, body mass index.

RCMI, rural cooperative medical insurance.

IRR, incident rate ratio.

CI, confident interval

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Tables

Table 1 Baseline characteristics (N=13413)

	All (N=13413)		urban (N=5639)		Rural (N=7774)		P value ^a
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
road type							
unpaved road	3104	23.14	1001	17.75	2103	27.05	<0.0001
paved road	8767	65.36	4173	74.00	45943	59.09	
sand-stone road	1460	10.88	444	7.87	1016	13.07	
other	82	0.61	21	0.37	21	0.37	
primary care institutions							0.07
0	3226	24.05	1333	23.64	1893	24.35	
1	5188	38.68	2210	39.19	2978	38.31	
2	3098	23.10	1339	23.75	1759	22.63	
≥3	1901	14.17	757	13.42	1144	14.72	
underground water							<0.0001
no	9495	70.79	3290	58.34	6205	79.82	
yes	3918	29.21	2349	41.66	1569	20.18	
sex							0.13
male	6431	47.95	2660	47.17	3771	48.51	
female	6982	52.05	2979	52.83	4003	51.49	
age							<0.0001
marital status							0.08
married	10741	80.08	4475	79.36	6266	80.60	
other	2672	19.92	1164	20.64	1508	19.40	
education status							0.67
illiteracy	3672	27.38	1543	27.36	2129	27.39	
below primary school	2371	17.68	1019	18.07	1352	17.39	
primary school	2895	21.58	1195	21.19	1700	21.87	
junior school or above	4475	33.36	1882	33.37	2593	33.35	
household income(quartile)							<0.0001
1st(the poorest)	3218	23.99	1477	26.19	1741	22.40	
2nd	3466	25.84	1363	24.17	2103	27.05	
3rd	3345	24.94	1418	25.15	1927	24.79	
4th(the richest)	3384	25.23	1381	24.49	2003	25.77	
body mass index (kg/m ²)							<0.001
<18.5	935	6.97	358	6.35	577	7.42	
≥18.5 and <25	8362	62.34	3449	61.16	4913	63.20	
≥25 and <30(overweight)	3462	25.81	1532	27.17	1930	24.83	
≥30(obese)	654	4.88	300	5.32	354	4.55	
health care insurance							0.14
uninsured	893	6.66	375	6.65	518	6.66	
RCMI	9771	72.85	4063	72.05	5708	73.42	
others	2749	20.50	1201	21.30	1548	19.91	
exercise							<0.0001
never	12686	94.58	5144	91.22	7542	97.02	
seldom	112	0.84	75	1.33	37	0.48	
a weekly basis	129	0.96	88	1.56	41	0.53	
a daily basis	486	3.62	332	5.89	154	1.98	

Note:

* represents mean (± standard deviation).

^a T test was employed for age , Mann–Whitney U test was employed for primary care institutions, education status, household income, body mass index, and exercise. Chi-squared test was employed for road type, groundwater system, sex, marital status, and health care insurance.

CI, confident interval.

BMI, body mass index.

RCMI, rural cooperative medical insurance.

Table 2 Multimorbidity among China's middle-aged and the elder participants (N=13,413)

Characteristics	Unweighted sample, N (%)			Weighted to reflect to China's population, % (95 CI)				
	All (N = 13,413)	Urban (N = 5,639)	Rural (N=7,774)	All	Urban	Rural		
Chronic disease								
0	4216 (31.43)	1730 (30.68)	2486 (31.98)	32.09 (28.97 - 34.11)	32.61 (28.73 - 32.57)	(30.62 - 34.67)	31.48 (29.25 - 31.89)	(30.50 - 33.72)
1	4020 (29.97)	1665 (29.53)	2355 (30.29)	30.58 (17.89 - 21.28)	30.55 (17.65 - 19.90)	(29.25 - 31.89)	30.62 (19.53 - 20.12)	(29.46 - 31.73)
2	2648 (19.74)	1146 (20.32)	1502 (19.32)	19.11 (8.58 - 10.62)	18.75 (10.04 - 10.95)	(17.65 - 19.90)	19.53 (9.55 - 10.50)	(18.14 - 20.12)
3	1393 (10.39)	586 (10.39)	807 (10.38)	9.81 (4.17 - 6.07)	10.04 (4.64 - 5.28)	(9.19 - 10.95)	9.55 (5.04 - 5.39)	(9.16 - 10.50)
4	680 (5.07)	310 (5.5)	370 (4.76)	4.82 (1.61 - 2.72)	4.64 (2.39 - 2.92)	(4.08 - 5.28)	5.04 (2.10 - 2.65)	(4.31 - 5.39)
5	304 (2.27)	131 (2.32)	173 (2.23)	2.25 (0.69 - 2.25)	2.39 (0.65 - 0.91)	(1.95 - 2.92)	2.10 (1.25 - 1.38)	(1.92 - 2.65)
6	97 (0.72)	46 (0.82)	51 (0.66)	0.93 (0.17 - 0.54)	0.65 (0.24 - 0.42)	(0.47 - 0.91)	1.25 (0.31 - 0.40)	(0.62 - 1.38)
7	37 (0.28)	17 (0.3)	20 (0.26)	0.27 (0.03 - 0.21)	0.24 (0.09 - 0.22)	(0.14 - 0.42)	0.31 (0.08 - 0.16)	(0.18 - 0.40)
8	12 (0.09)	5 (0.09)	7 (0.09)	0.09 (0.01 - 0.12)	0.09 (0.03 - 0.12)	(0.04 - 0.12)	0.08 (0.03 - 0.08)	(0.05 - 0.08)
9	4 (0.03)	2 (0.04)	2 (0.03)	0.03 (0.00 - 0.16)	0.03 (0.01 - 0.08)	(0.01 - 0.12)	0.03 (0.02 - 0.07)	(0.01 - 0.08)
10	2 (0.01)	1 (0.02)	1 (0.01)	0.02 (0.00 - 0.16)	0.01 (0.00 - 0.08)	(0.00 - 0.08)	0.02 (0.00 - 0.07)	(0.00 - 0.07)
arthritis or rheumatism	4570 (34.07)	1923 (34.1)	2647 (34.05)	33.08 (31.29 - 34.93)	32.87 (30.59 - 35.24)	(30.59 - 35.24)	33.33 (25.53 - 36.25)	(30.53 - 36.25)
hypertension	3276 (24.42)	1453 (25.77)	1823 (23.45)	24.54 (22.85 - 26.31)	23.69 (21.91 - 25.58)	(21.91 - 25.58)	25.53 (22.55 - 28.75)	(22.55 - 28.75)
digestive disease	3083 (22.99)	1251 (22.18)	1832 (23.57)	21.98 (20.68 - 23.33)	22.69 (21.24 - 24.21)	(21.24 - 24.21)	21.15 (21.15 - 23.56)	(18.92 - 23.56)
heart problems	1538 (11.47)	728 (12.91)	810 (10.42)	11.21 (10.23 - 12.27)	10.18 (9.05 - 11.45)	(9.05 - 11.45)	12.41 (10.79 - 14.23)	(10.79 - 14.23)
chronic lung diseases	1616 (12.05)	688 (12.2)	928 (11.94)	11.82 (10.99 - 12.71)	11.89 (10.84 - 13.03)	(10.84 - 13.03)	11.74 (10.45 - 13.18)	(10.45 - 13.18)
dyslipidemia	1162 (8.66)	535 (9.49)	627 (8.07)	8.86 (7.99 - 9.81)	8.21 (7.12 - 9.45)	(7.12 - 9.45)	9.62 (8.28 - 11.14)	(8.28 - 11.14)
chronic kidney disease	833 (6.21)	324 (5.75)	509 (6.55)	5.96 (5.34 - 6.64)	6.48 (5.58 - 7.52)	(5.58 - 7.52)	5.35 (4.57 - 6.25)	(4.57 - 6.25)
diabetes	743 (5.54)	356 (6.31)	387 (4.98)	5.85 (5.24 - 6.52)	5.14 (4.45 - 5.93)	(4.45 - 5.93)	6.67 (5.67 - 7.83)	(5.67 - 7.83)
Chronic liver disease	521 (3.88)	224 (3.97)	297 (3.82)	3.90 (3.44 - 4.43)	3.79 (3.23 - 4.45)	(3.23 - 4.45)	4.03 (3.32 - 4.90)	(3.32 - 4.90)
asthma	511 (3.81)	206 (3.65)	305 (3.92)	3.69 (3.26 - 4.17)	3.97 (3.41 - 4.62)	(3.41 - 4.62)	3.36 (2.75 - 4.11)	(2.75 - 4.11)
stroke	407 (3.03)	197 (3.49)	210 (2.7)	2.17 (1.83 - 2.57)	2.00 (1.58 - 2.52)	(1.58 - 2.52)	2.37 (1.84 - 3.03)	(1.84 - 3.03)
mental problems	258 (1.92)	111 (1.97)	147 (1.89)	1.78 (1.48 - 2.14)	1.79 (1.40 - 2.28)	(1.40 - 2.28)	1.77 (1.34 - 2.34)	(1.34 - 2.34)
memory-related disease	177 (1.32)	84 (1.49)	93 (1.2)	1.45 (1.16 - 1.80)	1.43 (1.08 - 1.89)	(1.08 - 1.89)	1.47 (1.03 - 2.08)	(1.03 - 2.08)
cancer	132 (0.98)	51 (0.9)	81 (1.04)	0.90 (0.74 - 1.09)	1.03 (0.82 - 1.30)	(0.82 - 1.30)	0.74 (0.52 - 1.04)	(0.52 - 1.04)

Note: CI, confident interval.

Table 3 Negative binomial regression analysis of multimorbidity (N=13,413)

Independent variable	Univariate analysis		Model 1		Model 2 ^a	
	IRR	95% CI	IRR	95 %CI	IRR	95 %CI
Neighborhood-level						
road type						
unpaved road		reference		reference		reference
others	1.24*	(1.02 - 1.51)	1.15	(0.95 - 1.41)	1.15*	(1.04 - 1.27)
paved road	0.88***	(0.85 - 0.92)	0.87***	(0.83 - 0.91)	0.87***	(0.80 - 0.95)
sand-stone road	0.91**	(0.85 - 0.97)	0.92**	(0.86 - 0.97)	0.92	(0.80 - 1.05)
urban (vs rural)	1.00*	(1.00 - 1.00)	1.05**	(1.01 - 1.09)	1.05	(0.98 - 1.12)
primary care institutions						
0		reference		reference		reference
1	0.99	(0.95 - 1.03)	0.99	(0.95 - 1.04)	0.99	(0.91 - 1.08)
2	0.99	(0.94 - 1.04)	1.00	(0.95 - 1.05)	1.00	(0.90 - 1.10)
≥3	0.90**	(0.85 - 0.96)	0.94*	(0.89 - 1.00)	0.94	(0.84 - 1.06)
groundwater system						
yes (vs no)	1.00	(0.96 - 1.04)	1.00	(0.96 - 1.05)	1.00	(0.93 - 1.08)
Individual-level confounders						
age (in a unit of ten years)	1.00	(0.98 - 1.01)	0.99	(0.97 - 1.01)	0.99	(0.97 - 1.01)
female (vs male)	1.00	(0.96 - 1.03)	1.00	(0.96 - 1.04)	1.00	(0.96 - 1.04)
married (vs others)	0.97	(0.93 - 1.02)	0.97	(0.93 - 1.01)	0.97	(0.93 - 1.01)
household income						
1st (the poorest)		reference		reference		reference
2nd	1.03	(0.98 - 1.07)	1.03	(0.98 - 1.08)	1.03	(0.98 - 1.08)
3rd	0.96	(0.91 - 1.00)	0.96	(0.93 - 1.00)	0.96	(0.91 - 1.01)
4th (the richest)	0.94*	(0.89 - 0.99)	0.93**	(0.89 - 0.98)	0.93*	(0.88 - 0.99)
education status						
illiteracy		reference		reference		reference
below primary school	1.03	(0.97 - 1.08)	1.03	(0.97 - 1.08)	1.03	(0.98 - 1.08)
primary school	1.01	(0.96 - 1.06)	1.01	(0.96 - 1.06)	1.01	(0.96 - 1.07)
junior school or above	1.03	(0.99 - 1.07)	1.03	(0.98 - 1.09)	1.03	(0.98 - 1.08)
health care insurance						
uninsured		reference		reference		reference
RCMI	1.03	(0.96 - 1.10)	1.03	(0.96 - 1.11)	1.03	(0.96 - 1.11)
others	1.04	(0.96 - 1.12)	1.06	(0.98 - 1.15)	1.06	(0.98 - 1.15)
body mass index						
<18.5		reference		reference		reference
≥18.5 and <25	0.91*	(0.85 - 0.97)	0.91**	(0.85 - 0.97)	0.91**	(0.85 - 0.97)
≥25 and <30	1.15***	(1.08 - 1.24)	1.16***	(1.08 - 1.24))	1.16***	(1.08 - 1.25)
≥30	1.36***	(1.24 - 1.50)	1.36***	(1.24 - 1.50)	1.36***	1.24 - 1.50)
exercise						
never		reference		reference		reference
seldom	1	(0.83 - 1.21)	1	(0.83 - 1.20)	1.00	(0.83 - 1.20)
a weekly basis	1.09	(0.92 - 1.29)	1.09	(0.92 - 1.29)	1.09	(0.90 - 1.32)
a daily basis	1.10*	(1.01 - 1.20)	1.08	(0.99 - 1.18)	1.08	(0.96 - 1.21)

Note: *** $P < 0.001$; ** $P < 0.01$; * $P < 0.05$.

^a standard errors were adjusted for clusters within neighborhoods

BMI, body mass index.

RCMI, rural cooperative medical insurance.

IRR, incident rate ratio.

CI, confident interval.